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ABSTRACT

The major purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of a teacher's instructional behavior on black high school students' learning of standard English grammatical features. The study also aimed (a) to identify the subjects' deviations from standard English and to select the most socially stigmatizing items, (b) to prepare and evaluate lessons dealing with those items, and (c) to identify and list those aspects of teacher behavior which contributed to the students' performance. The subject group consisted of 25 black male students of average ability from a large inner-city high school. The students were exposed to a 20-day treatment composed of lessons developed by the investigator. Students were tested four times during the study, and the data derived from these tests led to the conclusion that urban high school students can master standard English when the following conditions are met: (a) the teacher establishes a rapport with the students which puts students and teacher on the same side; (b) specific goals are set with the students' cooperation; (c) rules are agreed upon mutually; (d) subject matter contexts are based on topics of interest to the students; (e) the help of natural class leaders is enlisted; (f) the teacher exercises firmness with flexibility; (g) the students' attention is directed to a few surface features of the standard dialect; and (h) the teacher understands the students as individuals and as members of a cultural group. Because of the limited size of the study population, the conclusions must be considered tentative. (HMD)

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TRIPLE "T" PROJECT

MONOGRAPH SERIES

3

THE EFFECTS OF A TEACHER'S INSTRUCTIONAL BEHAVIOR ON BLACK STUDENTS' MASTERY OF STANDARD ENGLISH

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PREFACE

For the past four years, with financial support from the U. S. Office of Education, Temple University has been conducting a doctoral level program to prepare leadership personnel in the areas of mathematics and English education. The Trainers of Teacher Trainers program or "Triple T", as it has been called, has focused solely upon education in the urban environment.

The primary objective of the program was to provide teacher trainers and curriculum and instruction specialists with the insights and competencies necessary to provide leadership in inner-city education. This objective was achieved by a three-phase program: academic and professional experiences within the university; internships within the university and inner-city schools; realistic community experiences within the various urban communities of Philadelphia.

During its operational period, thirty-one doctoral students (clinicians) from elementary and secondary schools, colleges, universities, and social organizations were full-time participants. The majority of these were from minority groups. In addition to the student participants there were more than fifty college and school personnel and no less than one hundred community people who had an active involvement. The project indeed brought together, with singular purpose, representatives from the community, public schools, and various colleges of the University.

From the outset an integral part of the program was the creation of innovative curricular and instructional materials and projects, also

a considerable number of papers were written and extensive research was conducted by the participants, an associated research professor, and the project director. The research efforts dealt with virtually every aspect of the project and at this point in time is nearing completion. The materials that follow in this publication, and others in the series, are a means of disseminating the results of TTT's efforts with the hope that others interested in similar problems can profit by the program's experiences. It is also hoped that several of TTT's innovative approaches would be of practical use to schools and teacher training institutions in the common quest to improve education and the training of teachers. *

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May, 1974

* The project gratefully acknowledges Ms. Roberta K. Johnson for the careful typing and preparation of the manuscript.

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THE EFFECTS OF A TEACHER'S INSTRUCTIONAL BEHAVIOR ON BLACK STUDENTS' MASTERY OF STANDARD ENGLISH[1]

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[1] The following is an abstract of Dr. Flower's Doctoral Dissertation completed at Temple University, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

THE EFFECTS OF A TEACHER'S INSTRUCTIONAL BEHAVIOR ON BLACK STUDENTS' MASTERY OF STANDARD ENGLISH

INTRODUCTION

It is widely recognized that the dialect of black children from lower socioeconomic families is a serious problem for most teachers. The dialect is resilient, and consequently resistant to change. Therefore, the ability to teach the standard dialect to inner-city children ranks high on educators' lists of priorities. Recently, the dialect has been implicated in the failures--academic, social and economic--of black people; and the search for solutions has become a national priority. The magnitude of the problem is reflected in the range of language intervention programs that extend from preschool upward through college, and outward to school drop-outs via adult basic education and general education development programs. It is also reflected in the huge appropriations by local, state and national organizations, foundations and institutions for research; in the inclusion of the topic on agendas of state and national conventions and workshops; and in the spate of materials that emanates from them. Perhaps an even greater indicator of concern is the current attempt to create an interdisciplinary approach which brings to bear the findings of sociologists, anthropologists, linguists, psychologists and educators.

In spite of a variety of approaches, methods, techniques and materials that have been used in the effort to make black speakers proficient in their use of the standard dialect, there have been small returns, if any. Few inner-city black students demonstrate a productive command of Standard English.

NEED FOR THE STUDY

There are three reasons why this study was needed. First, it is common knowledge that the dialect of inner-city black students differs from Standard English. Labov (1970), while working with inner-city black students, found that the major difference between their Nonstandard speech and Standard English lay in the surface structure (i.e., the overt form) of the language and not in the deep structure (i.e., the underlying form). This discovery led Labov to conclude that such students needed help in dealing with the surface features of Standard English. Second, a review of the literature shows no research which deals with the effects of teacher behavior upon the learning of Standard English. This lack of research on teacher behavior and the learning of Standard English, plus the need for focus on the surface features of Standard English, coupled with the widely known fact that black students have not mastered Standard English suggests the need for a study that would (1) involve teaching Standard English to black students in such a way as to focus these students' attention on surface structure, and (2) identify in detail certain specific aspects of teacher behavior contributing to students' mastery of the Standard dialect.

PURPOSE

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of a teacher's instructional behavior on black high school students' learning of Standard English grammatical features; using lessons which focused attention upon the surface structure of the Standard dialect in contrast to the surface structure of Nonstandard English.

In addition, the study aimed (a) to identify the subjects' deviations from Standard English, (b) to select from those deviations the most socially stigmatizing items, (c) to prepare lessons dealing with those items, (d) to measure the effects of these lessons by means of tests prepared by the investigator, (e) to analyze the kinds of teacher behavior employed and (f) to identify and list those aspects of teacher behavior which contributed to the students' performance.

Hypothesis

The following null hypothesis was tested:

> Teacher behavior has no effect upon black urban high school students' learning of Standard English grammatical features.

Limitations of the Study

1. This was an informal descriptive study limited to twenty-five black males enrolled in the eleventh grade at an inner-city high school in Philadelphia. They were considered to be "average" students by the school administration, although their scores on the Iowa Test of Basic Skills placed them three to four grades below grade level.

2. Data for the study were obtained from the following sources: the students' taped conversations; general observation; and the students' performance on four tests prepared by the investigator. These were: (a) Local Grammar Test, Form I, (b) Local Grammar Test, Form II, (c) Local Grammar Test, Form III, and (d) Local Grammar Test, Form IV.

3. The treatment period was limited to twenty consecutive school days--thirty minutes per day.

4. The study focused on six features of Standard English grammatical usage only.

5. A black woman was the investigator and teacher.

6. The direction and magnitude of direction of student performance from test to test was assessed by use of the Wilcoxon matched pairs signed rank test.

PROCEDURE

The Population

The subjects for this study were twenty-five black eleventh grade males of average ability from a large inner-city high school in Philadelphia. The subjects were members of a class that was chosen randomly by the school administration. They formed the single experimental group used in the study.

Students of high school age were chosen because it has been observed by sociolinguists (e.g., Labov) that the teen years are the best time for learning another dialect. By this period, students are in full command of their own dialect. In addition, at this age, their world is sufficiently widened to include exposure to different dialects which they perceive as socially significant. Plumer (1970), using Labov's stages of language acquisition as a basis, suggests that adolescence

may be the best period for dialect expansion. Johnson (1970, p. 29) adds, "If these are the natural stages of language acquisition...disadvantaged black students should not be taught Standard English until they reach adolescence or the secondary grades."

The main reason for choosing an all male population for this study was the investigator's interest in testing the feasibility of the proposed treatment under the most rigorous conditions possible. In general, adolescents resist formal education, among other aspects of traditionalism. This resistance is greater among the males than among the females. Quist (1969) found that boys tend to be less traditional than girls, and that as they move up the educational ladder this tendency is more marked. The valuing of sexual prowess above intellectual prowess in the black male from the lower socioeconomic ranks has increased his negative attitude toward intellectual tasks (Johnson, 1970, p. 35). Therefore, many school activities are considered by him to be effeminate. Speaking Standard English is one such activity. If a treatment succeeds with black male adolescents, there should be hope of its success with other inner-city students.

The Treatment

The students were exposed to a twenty-day treatment composed of lessons which were developed by the investigator. A sample lesson follows:

Multiple Negation-I

Objective: The student will be able to distinguish Standard negative sentences from Nonstandard negative sentences using negative markers as a basis.

~~The student will know the Standard English (SE) negative~~ markers.

Look at the following sentences:

He didn't never see nobody	He never saw anybody.
Nobody didn't walk home noway.	Nobody walked home anyway

Which of the above are Nonstandard English (NSE)? Which are Standard English (SE)?

The sentences on the left are NSE. Those on the right are SE.

Look at the sentences again:

1. He didn't never see nobody.
2. He never saw anybody.
3. Nobody didn't walk home noway.
4. Nobody walked home anyway.

Which word has been left out of the SE negatives?
Which words have been changed in the SE negatives?

* How many negative markers does each NSE sentence have?
  How many negative markers does each SE sentence have?

A NSE negative has several negative markers.
A SE negative has only one negative marker.

---

*Display list of negative markers

The lessons were based on observations of deviations from Standard English collected during the diagnostic (base line) phase of the pre-treatment period. The lessons were thirty minutes long and were taught five days a week for four consecutive weeks. Each lesson required the student to

see, hear, discriminate, say and write utterances exemplifying the grammatical feature being taught. It is worth noting that in this study students were shown the written form of sentences involving the target features. This was because speakers of nonstandard dialects often fail to perceive the crucial differences between dialectal usages when they merely hear Standard English. Discussion, games, pattern drill, role playing and mini-lectures formed an integral part of the lessons. The subject matter used in the lessons was governed by the observed interests of the students. Each lesson introduced a selected feature of Standard English usage along with review and maintenance of features previously taught. Although the specially constructed lessons constituted the major part of the treatment, some additional materials were used in conjunction with them for reinforcement through reading and discussion. The additional materials used in this project were selected poems from The Panther And The Lash by Langston Hughes; a play from Five Plays by Langston Hughes, edited by Webster Smalley; a play from Black Perspectives, edited by Alma Murray and Robert Thomas and selections from From Black Africa by Wells, Stevenson and King. Since each treatment period took just thirty of the regular fifty-minute class period, the remaining twenty minutes were generally devoted to activities involving literary works.

The lessons of the treatment centered around six of the linguistic features noted by the investigator while observing language in use by the subjects during the four-day, diagnostic phase, namely: HAVE, BE, DO, the simple past tense, the future auxiliary and multiple negation.

Each feature was sub-divided into components. For example, lessons on HAVE involved the treatment of have, has, had, haven't, and hasn't. Thus the six features involved twenty-one components. The following criteria based on Shuy (1972, pp. 331-340) guided the selection of features for treatment: 1. sharp versus gradient stratification (that is, the feature shows a sharp break between social classes); 2. generality of the rule (the rule affects a large group of words or sentences); 3. grammatical versus phonological in nature (the feature deals with structure rather than with sound); 4. social versus regional significance (the feature has negative social values everywhere); 5. relative frequency of the item.

The specific aspects of the features covered in the treatment are those for which the students had no consistent Standard English alternative as indicated by their oral and written performance during the diagnostic phase of the pre-treatment period.

Teaching the Features

The Standard English forms of the verbs HAVE, DO and BE were the first of the main features to be taught. A total of four days was devoted to teaching these three features. A minimal amount of time was devoted to the teaching of HAVE, DO and BE because these verbs are basic to conversation; therefore, general classroom discussion during the treatment period would provide ample practice in hearing and using their Standard forms.

It is one of the peculiarities of English that each of these verbs has a dual function, being used sometimes as the main verb and sometimes as the auxiliary. The treatment lessons took this fact into account.

In teaching the past tense and the future tense, it was not necessary to deal with the time concepts represented by these tenses; the students had already mastered these time concepts. They merely needed another system for expressing the ideas of time. The same principle applied to teaching the negative system in Standard English. The concept was there; only the mode for expressing it differed. To put the matter another way, the underlying semantic structure was not the problem. The problem was the difference in surface features.

What follows is a summary of points presented in the lessons of the treatment, to show how the treatment employed second-language descriptive techniques which directed attention to surface structure.

HAVE. One lesson was devoted to the presentation of the verb HAVE. The present tense and the past tense of the main verb have were taught along with haven't and hasn't, as auxiliaries. The following paradigms were introduced:

NSE		SE	
I have	we have	I have	we have
you have	you have	you have	you have
he she have it	they have	he she has it	they have

The students were told that very often Nonstandard English is more economical than Standard English because it uses fewer forms to express the same idea. HAVE was given as an example.

In each case, the subjects were told: "If you want to speak Standard English, this is how you must alter your system," (i.e., change their Nonstandard expression so that it becomes a Standard one).

DO. A single lesson was devoted to teaching DO. The present tense, past tense and don't and doesn't as auxiliaries were taught. These components present problems for the black speaker of Nonstandard English for the following reasons: (1) The present tense paradigm in Standard English has two forms, do and does, whereas the Nonstandard paradigm has only one; do. (2) In the past tense Standard English uses did to express the simple past. Nonstandard English uses the form, done. (3) Standard English uses two auxiliaries in the negative, don't and doesn't; Nonstandard English has only one, don't. Because of these paradigmatic differences, Nonstandard English speakers encounter structural difficulties when learning the Standar English equivalents of the verb DO.

The following type of exercise was used as reinforcement and review:

Directions: Answer the following questions orally.
Use complete sentences.

Ex. Does President Nixon have a son? No, he doesn't.

Does it snow in July in Philadelphia?

Does it snow in December in Philadelphia?

Do Eskimos live in igloos?

Do Philadelphians live in igloos?

John, do you live in England?

Does _____ live in England?
(The name of a known person)

BE. Two lessons were devoted to teaching BE. The present tense and the past tense were taught. These two tenses of BE were taught because of the differences in the present and past tense paradigms of the two dialects and the structural interference that results when a Nonstandard speaker attempts to learn the Standard English version. BE in SE has three present forms--am, is and are--whereas Nonstandard English has only two forms--am and is. In the past tense, Standard English has two forms, was and were. Nonstandard English has only one, was. This explanation was given as a reason for studying BE. Examples were offered in sentences that incorporated the Standard English present and past tense forms in meaningful context:

Present tense

S. Where are you?	R. I am _____.
S. Where am I?	R. You are _____.
S. Where's the chalk?	R. It's _____.
S. Where are we?	R. We are _____.
S. Where's John sitting?	R. He's sitting _____.

Past tense

S. Who was John F. Kennedy?	R. He was _____.
S. Who were Malcolm X and Martin Luther King?	R. They were _____.

PAST TENSE. Three days were devoted to teaching the past tense of regular verbs. In Nonstandard English the tendency is towards simplification of the final consonant cluster; therefore stopped, walked and shouted are frequently pronounced and written "stop," "walk," and "shout." This is true of most verbs that pattern like the preceding ones.

The investigator explained that when Standard English speakers express the past tense, they do so by adding an ending to the verb, but in Nonstandard English no ending is used. It was shown that the letters -ed, used to express the past tense, represent three different pronunciations, /-Id/, /-t/, and /-d/. The students were taught which of these sounds is the appropriate ending when switching from Standard English to Nonstandard English. Examples of the three pronunciations were provided:

shouted	succeeded	walked	hoped	failed	played
/-Id/	/-Id/	/-t/	/-t/	/-d/	/-d/

As in all other cases, the cumulative reviews included these endings. One such review exercise was as follows:

Stimulus:	Response:
ex. They told him to talk.	So he talked.
They told him to start.	
They told him to jump.	
They tole him to play.	
They told him to cry.	
They told him to respond.	
They told him to debate.	

The Future Copula

This feature poses a problem for Nonstandard speakers because (1) Nonstandard English does not use a future marker and (2) SE varies in its use of the form of the future marker; that is, sometimes the full form is employed (will, is, are) and at other times, the reduced form is employed ('ll, 's, 're). The problem is magnified because of the fact that among speakers of SE, the degree of reduction differs from speaker to speaker and from occasion to occasion; therefore, the NSE speaker sometimes does not hear the uttered form.

It is for the latter reason perhaps that NSE speakers are most confused. They hear the future marker sometimes and at other times they don't, even though it is there. They are unable to establish a real reason for its occurrence; and feeling that others use it or leave it out at will, they do the same.

The students were told how SE expresses the future tense, using both the full and the contracted forms. They were given examples of the future tense in both dialects. Examples such as the following were offered:

A	B
Today is Tuesday	Lyndon Johnson was President.
Yesterday was Monday.	Richard Nixon is President.
Tomorrow will be Wednesday.	Who will be President in 1980?

At this point, examples included the past and present tense in contrast to the future in order to make the activity more meaningful

and to provide additional practice using the past and present forms.

Multiple Negation

Two days were devoted to multiple negation. Because SE normally uses only one negative marker per sentence and in NSE the number may correspond to the number of indefinite elements, structural interference develops when a NSE speaker attempts to learn the SE negation system. It is for this reason that multiple negation was included.

The explanation to the students was that SE uses one negative marker, whereas NSE uses an indeterminate number. The students were then told that in order to switch from NSE to SE it would be necessary to change all negatives in the NSE sentence to positives except one.

Some examples given were:

Nobody don't do nothing like that.	NSE
Nobody does anything like that.	SE
I don't have no sisters.	NSE
I don't have any sisters.	SE

Several additional features were explained, but not practiced extensively as a part of the project. The feeling was that through daily use these features would be learned.

The lessons of the treatment centered around six linguistic features: HAVE, DO, BE (as main and auxiliary verbs), the Past Tense of Regular Verbs, the Future Copula and Multiple Negation. These six were the major targets of the lessons. However, during the observation period, two phonological features came to the investigator's attention.

It was noticed that the majority of the subjects regularly substituted /d/ for voiced th in the initial position, thereby pronouncing them, this, and these as "dem," "dis," and "dese," respectively. Likewise, it was found that the same group regularly substituted /f/ for voiceless th in final position, so that bath, tooth and path became "baf," "toof" and "paf," respectively.

Even though the project focused on grammatical features rather than on pronunciation per se, the investigator spent the first day of the treatment calling the students' attention to the SE counterparts and having them consciously produce the same. The hope was that, with an explanation and an occasional reminder, the subjects could, in twenty days, master the production of those sounds that they believed themselves to have been producing along.

Instructional Method

The method used was eclectic, embracing several procedures used by second-language teachers.

Since recent studies have suggested that the specific method employed is less crucial than teacher behavior, this study focused upon the ways in which the teacher fulfilled her role vis-a-vis the students.

The Instruments

Four tests were used to measure the students' command of the Standard English grammatical features involved in this study.

The instruments, informal Standard English recognition tests, were developed by the investigator after the subjects' deviations from Standard English had been identified by the investigator (through observation). It was necessary that the informal instruments be developed because the project required assessment of curricular validity. For curricular validity, the measurement device had to reflect those Standard English features included in the treatment. It had to assess performance with reference to goals (and only those goals) germane to the proposed treatment. Likewise, it had to test the extent to which those features were produced in a language-code-switching situation. No standardized device meeting these criteria is available. In the past, attempts to measure the verbal ability of black inner-city students with standardized tests have been counter-productive. Since the students have always refused to speak, they have been identified as non-verbal or verbally deprived. Neither is the case, however. It is rather that the students were reacting normally to the culturally conditioned setup of the tests, which is itself inhibiting (Lewis, 1970). Labov, with reference to the speech performance of a black inner-city student, Leon, concluded that "none of the standardized tests will come anywhere near measuring such a student's verbal capacity" (1970, p. 163).

Form I was the Pre-test, Form II was the interim test and was administered prior to implementation of the video-taping. Form III was the Post test and Form IV, the Re-test. Form IV was administered one month after completion of the treatment.

Each form of the test consisted of thirty sentences, some Standard and some Nonstandard, which were read silently by the subjects and treated in the following manner: All sentences that the student considered Nonstandard (or that contained Nonstandard features) were to be underlined and their corresponding Standard form was to be written in the margin. All sentences considered Standard were to be marked "Standard." A maximum score of thirty points could be obtained.

Examples of the sentences are:

1. Mrs. Johnson's cousins from Richmond is here for her funeral. _____
2. The library have a lot of books about sports. _____
3. The store don't give no guarantee on tires. _____

Each sentence, whether Standard or Nonstandard, exemplified one feature (or one component of a feature) included in the treatment.

The instrument which was similar to the type of test previously used by Lin (1966) underwent a trial run prior to its use with the subjects in order to establish its content validity. It was administered to a group of graduate students who are also teachers of English. To establish reliability the test was given to a group of fifty black eleventh graders at a Philadelphia Catholic High School.

A student's performance on this instrument measured his ability to distinguish between Standard English and Nonstandard English grammatical usage and to produce the appropriate Standard English form.

Collection and Analysis of Data

One group of twenty-five students of average ability comprised the group tested. The students were black males from the inner-city. They were all eleventh graders.

Samples of the students' grammatical usage were gathered by the investigator during a four-day pre-treatment period. Classroom conversation and an informal test were the major diagnostic tools. Because the major focus was on teacher behavior, there was a need to obtain background information on the individual student--his attitude, academic progress, strengths and weaknesses--which would allow the teacher's approach to each student to be different. To obtain this information, the students' cumulative records were consulted.

The pre-treatment period (which took place soon after a teachers' strike in 1972) was conducted in this manner: one-third of the class met with the investigator the first day, one-third the second day, and one-third the third day. The total group was seen on the fourth day. On each of the first three days, introductions were performed, recordings of simulated situations were made, the purpose of the project was discussed and an appeal to participate was made. To elicit conversation for recording four simulated situations were described and copies of the descriptions were passed out. The students had five minutes to choose one of the topics provided or to think of their own, and to get ideas formulated for a two-minute taping. The following situations were offered:

1. You bought a radio from Sears. It doesn't work. What are you going to say to the manager when you return it?

2. You now have the power to change the world. What changes will you make? Why?

3. You have just won the Pennsylvania $1,000,000.00 lottery, and the Inquirer wants to know how you will spend it.

4. President Nixon's labor representative wants your opinion about your school, the teachers and the strike.

5. The doctor has just given you eight hours to live. How will you spend these last eight hours on earth?

The fourth day of the pre-treatment period was devoted to the explanation and discussion of rules, regulations, criteria and all other responsibilities regarding the project. Students were asked to think about the project and, if interested in participating, to report to the classroom the following Monday.

During the treatment period tests developed by the investigator were administered to the subjects. Form I, the Pre-test, was administered on the first treatment day to find out where the students stood in terms of the grammatical items that had been selected for the treatment. Form II, the Interim test, was administered at the end of the first week to measure the effects of the treatment thus far. Students were tested at this point in the project because video-taping of the class sessions was scheduled to begin during the second week. It seemed important to find out what progress the students had made prior to the introduction of video-taping.

Form III, the Post test, was administered on the last day of the treatment. It was followed four weeks later by Form IV, the Re-test.

The data from these tests were subjected to the Wilcoxon Matched-pairs signed-rank test in order to determine the direction and the magnitude of student performance from test to test.

The Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank test is a nonparametric test which utilizes the quanitative information inherent in the ranking of differences. It takes advantage of both direction and magnitude implicit in ordinal measurement with correlated samples (Runyon-Haber, 1971, p. 265).

TEST RESULTS

To measure the effects of teacher behavior upon urban black students' learning of Standard English, the investigator administered a Pre-test on the first day of the project and a Post-test on the last day. She also administered an Interim Test after the first week of the treatment, to measure the students' progress prior to introducing the use of video-taping during the class sessions. In addition, a Re-test was administered thirty days after the treatment was completed.

Scores on the Pre-test revealed a wide range of ability to perform the task required by the test (i.e., to distinguish between Standard and Nonstandard grammatical forms, and to produce the appropriate Standard equivalent for each Nonstandard item). This was true even though the group as a whole had been judged "average"

by the school administrators. Scores on the 30-item Pre-test ranged from 29 to 9, with thirteen of the students (more than half the group) scoring below 20. Only three of the subjects scored above 25. Raw scores of the individual students on the Pre-test are shown in Table 1.

TABLE I

SUBJECTS' RAW SCORE MEASURES FOR PRE-TEST

Subject	Pre-Test
1	20
2	12
3	13
4	15
5	10
6	12
7	29
8	21
9	21
10	22
11	21
12	20
13	26
14	12
15	13
16	20
17	9
18	10
19	27
20	23
21	19
22	20
23	15
24	13
25	27
Mean	17.96

On the Interim Test, which followed a week's work on the grammatical features, scores ranged from 28 to 11; fifteen of the subjects scored above 20; of these, six scored above [illegible]. Table II compares the raw scores of individual students on the Pre-Test and the Interim Test.

TABLE II

SUBJECTS' RAW SCORE MEASURES ON THE PRE-TEST AND INTERIM TEST

Subject	Pre-Test	Interim Test
1	20	12
2	12	20
3	13	23
4	15	24
5	10	12
6	12	16
7	29	25
8	21	19
9	21	24
10	22	23
11	21	25
12	20	26
13	26	26
14	12	11
15	13	25
16	20	22
17	9	14
18	10	22
19	27	28
20	23	18
21	19	20
22	20	22
23	15	25
24	13	26
25	7	28
Mean	17.96	21.44

Table III, which compares individual Pre-test scores with scores on the Post-test (administered on the last day of the treatment) shows that on the Post-test, scores ranged from 30 to 9. Subject #20, who had scored 23 on the Pre-test, dropped back to a score of 9; all other members of the group, however, had improved in their ability to perform the required task; most of them improved substantially. Whereas only twelve of the 25 subjects had scored above 20 on the first day of the project, twenty-three of the students scored above 20 on the last day; seventeen scored

above 25.

TABLE III

SUBJECTS' RAW SCORE MEASURES FOR PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST

Subject	Pre-Test	Post-Test
1	20	26
2	12	22
3	13	26
4	15	26
5	10	22
6	12	26
7	29	30
8	21	24
9	21	28
10	22	28
11	21	26
12	20	27
13	26	30
14	12	21
15	13	25
16	20	26
17	9	15
18	10	22
19	27	28
20	23	9
21	19	20
22	20	27
23	15	26
24	13	26
25	27	29
Mean	17.96	24.56

Scores on the Re-test, which was administered thirty days after the treatment was completed, show the extent to which the students had retained their grasp over the skills involved. Scores ranged from 30 to 18. Fourteen members of the group either maintained the same score as on the Post-test, or scored higher on the Re-test than on the Post-test; only two of the twenty-five subjects had

regressed more than 3 points since the completion of the treatment. Only one member of the group scored below 20 on the Re-test, whereas thirteen members had scored below 20 at the start of the treatment. Fifteen subjects scored above 25 on the Re-test, in contrast to the three who had scored above 25 on the Pre-test, as shown in Table IV.

TABLE IV

SUBJECTS' RAW SCORE MEASURES FOR PRE-TEST, POST-TEST AND RE-TEST

Subject	Pre-Test	Post-Test	Re-Test
1	20	26	30
2	12	22	24
3	13	26	21
4	15	26	21
5	10	22	19
6	12	26	27
7	29	30	29
8	21	24	27
9	21	28	26
10	22	28	29
11	21	26	28
12	20	27	27
13	26	30	29
14	12	21	21
15	13	25	25
16	20	26	23
17	9	15	18
18	10	22	25
19	27	28	26
20	23	9	26
21	19	20	18
22	20	27	26
23	15	26	26
24	13	26	24
25	27	29	30
Mean	17.96	24.56	25.00

TABLE V

SUMMARY OF TEST MEANS

Test	Means
Pre-test	17.96
Interim test	21.44
Post-test	24.56
Re-test	25.00

As indicated by Table V, the mean score on the Pre-test was 17.96. On the Re-test, the mean was 25.00 showing a group improvement of 7.04 points, or 28%.

To assess the significance of this improvement, the investigator subjected the data to the Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed ranks test, which involved a comparison of the following pairs:

Pre-test and Interim Test

Pre-test and Post-test

Pre-test and Re-test

Interim Test and Post-test

Interim Test and Re-test

Post-test and Re-test

The results of this statistical analysis showed that the effects of the treatment were significant at the .05 level for all the above paired groups except for the Post-test and Re-test. In other words,

the gains were statistically significant throughout the project until the Re-test. Gains made between the Post-test and the Re-test were not statistically significant. (It should be noted that the treatment stopped thirty days before the Re-test, so gains during that period were not expected to be significant.)

Table VI, reflects a statistical analysis of the group's performance from Pre-test to Re-test, using all possible combinations.

TABLE VI

SUMMARY TABLE OF ANALYSIS USING THE WILCOXON MATCHED-PAIRS SIGNED-RANK TEST

Test Groups	T-Values
Pre-test-Interim test	54.5*
Pre-test - Post-test	23 *
Pre-test - Re-test	2 *
Interim test - Post-test	16 *
Interim test - Re-test	63.5*
Re-test - Post-test	105

Of all the comparisons, the only one in which the degree and magnitude of difference was not significant was the comparison of the Post-test with the Re-test. Since the treatment ended with the Post-test, it was not expected that the subjects would improve significantly beyond that point. It was hoped, however, that the group would reflect retention of what had been learned. The Re-test scores in comparison with the Post-test scores indicates that learning was retained.

TEST SCORES AND ATTENDANCE

In order to find out how test scores correlated with attendance, four scattergrams were prepared (Figures 1-4):

These diagrams contrast students' test scores with their attendance. The highest possible score on each test was 30; the duration of the treatment was 20 days. "Middle attendance" was 5 to 9 days. As Figure 1 shows, among the 12 students whose overall attendance later proved to be "high," 6 students scored 50% or below on the Pre-test, while 6 scored above 50%.

Figures 2-4 show, students' scores progressively moved past the 50% mark, until at Re-test, all scores clustered in the upper ranges, with 9 of the "low attendance" students included among those who achieved scores of 24 or above.

These diagrams suggest that attendance may not be as crucial a factor in the learning of Standard English as it is usually assumed to be. Even in situations where there is a great deal of absenteeism, it is possible to strengthen students' grasp of Standard English. The most dramatic example of this was student #18, who raised his score from 10 on the Pre-test to 25 on the Re-test, despite having missed 12 days of the treatment.

FIGURE 1

SCATTERGRAM--SCORES AGAINST ATTENDANCE

PRETEST

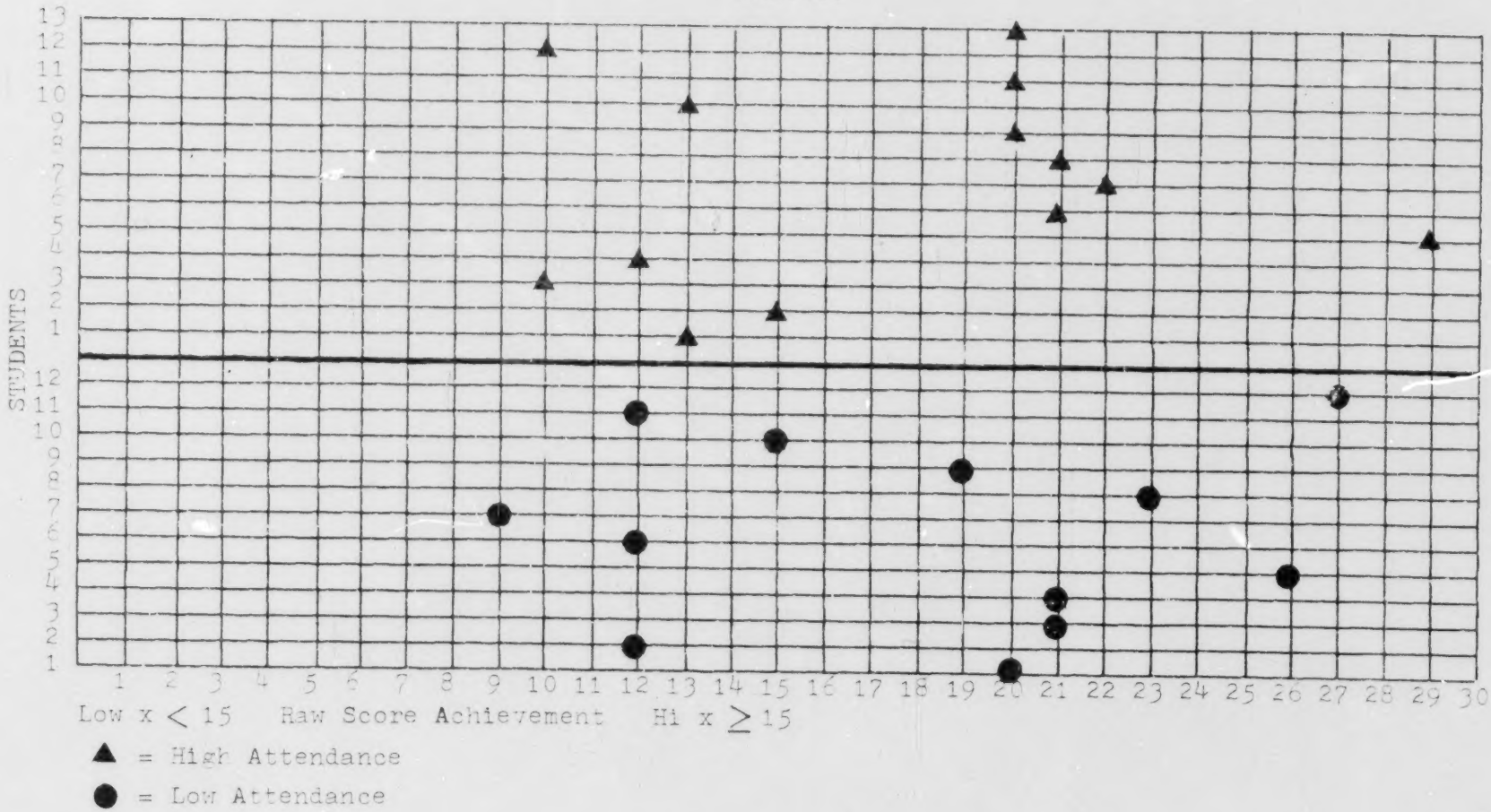


FIGURE 2

SCATTERGRAM--SCORES AGAINST ATTENDANCE

INTERIM TEST

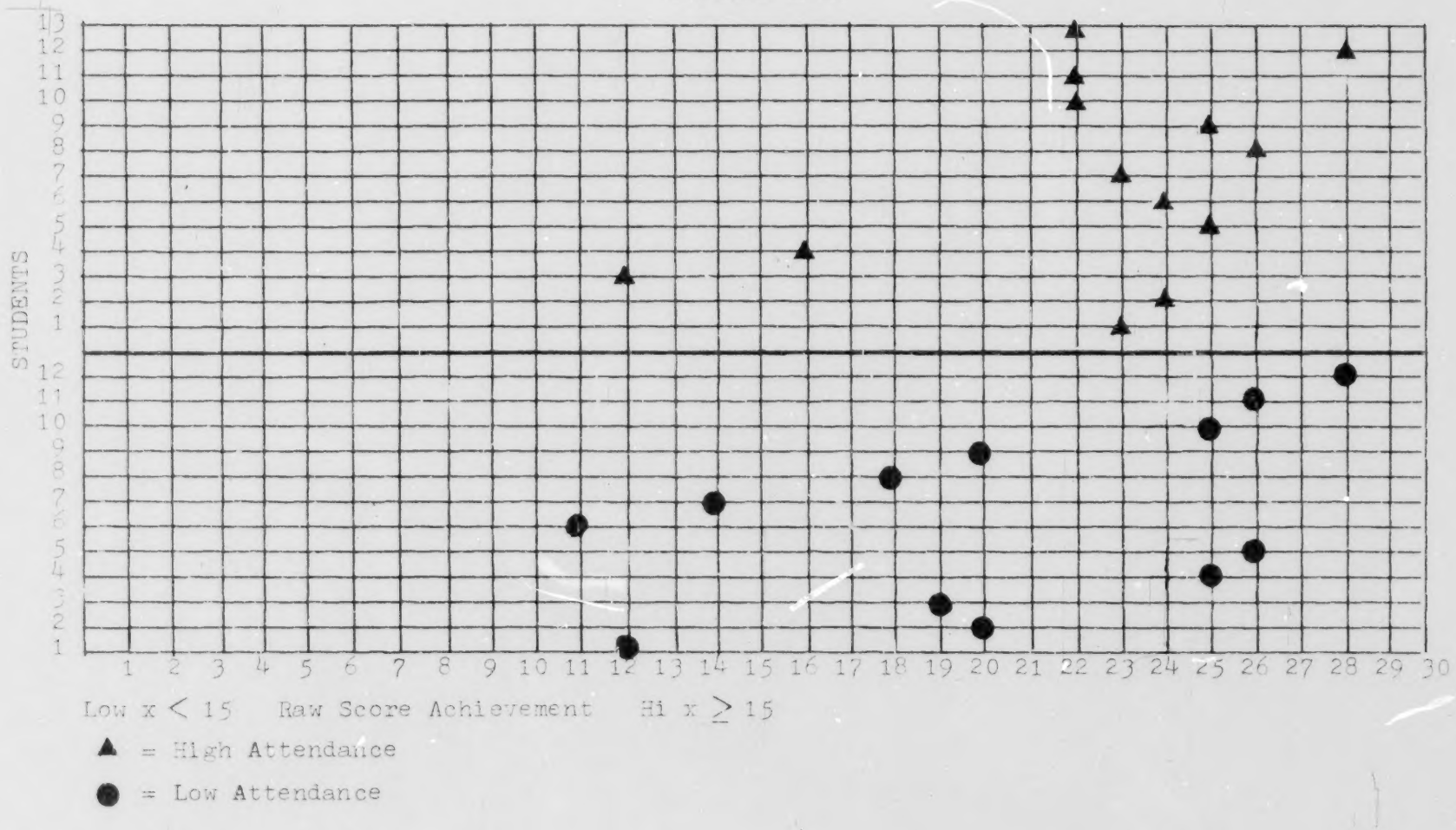


FIGURE 3

SCATTERGRAM--SCORES AGAINST ATTENDANCE

POST TEST

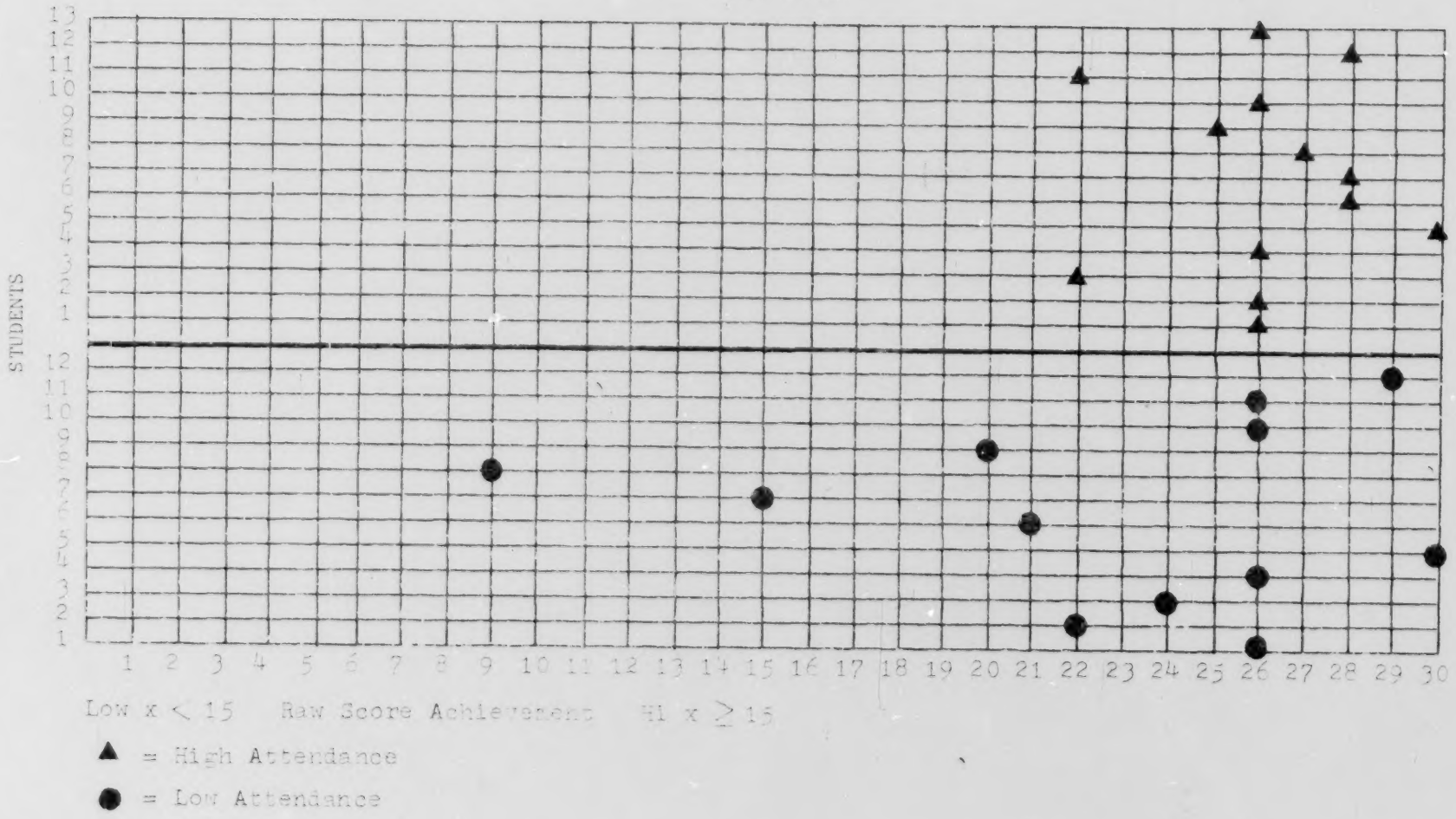
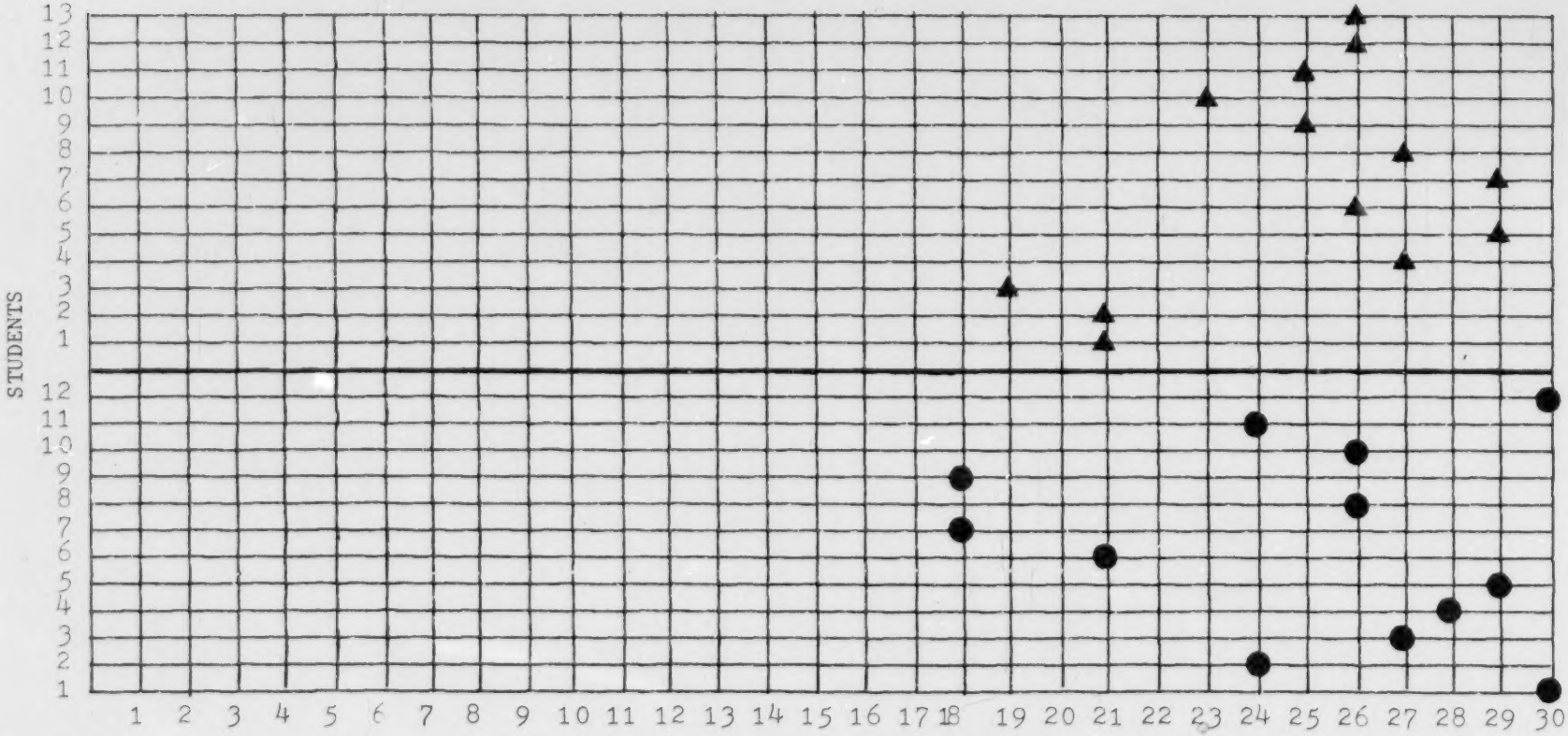


FIGURE 4

SCATTERGRAM--SCORES AGAINST ATTENDANCE

RETEST



CONCLUSIONS

Because the investigation involved a small number of subjects only, all conclusions based on its findings must be considered tentative and subject to the limitations set forth earlier. The null hyppthesis was rejected.

> Teacher behavior has no effect upon black urban high school students' learning of Standard English grammatical features.

From the test data derived from this study, it may be concluded that urban high school students can master Standard English when the following conditions are met:

1. The teacher establishes a rapport with the students which puts students and teacher on the same side.
2. Specific goals are set with the students' cooperation.
3. Rules and regualtions are mutually agreed upon.
4. Topics of interest to the students are selected as a subject-matter context for the practice.
5. The help of natural class leaders is enlisted.
6. The teacher exercises firmness with flexibility.
7. Class activities are varied.
8. The teacher uses specially designed activities to focus the students' attention, at the beginning of the lesson, on what is to be learned.

9. The students' attention is directed to a few surface features of the Standard dialect in contrast to corresponding features of their own dialect.

10. The teacher understands the students as individuals and as members of a cultural group whose life style and values may differ from those of the teacher.

This study also suggests that the following statements are true:

1. Even an "average" class is not really homogeneous. Some students were far more able than others to recognize Nonstandard forms and to supply Standard ones.

2. Students are often mislabeled "below grade level" when judgements are based on standardized reading scores.

3. Some students do not need to be taught Standard English along with their classmates. They should be excused from such lessons and given more challenging tasks.

4. Students will attempt a task and apply their energies to it, even though the task seems to them unimportant, if they like and respect the teacher.

5. Students need to feel challenged to do their best. This is true even of those who are considered "disadvantaged" or "culturally different." They need to be made to feel that they can perform but only if they exert an effort.

6. The genre (whether a poem, a story or play) in which the subject matter is presented is a less important factor than teachers sometimes assume. What counts more is the tone or general atmosphere of the class, the student-teacher rapport and other aspects of teacher behavior.

7. In class discussions which are intended to provide practice on Standard English (the target dialect) the best topics are those which are interesting but not emotionally charged.

8. High school students need to perceive the mechanics involved in producing a certain kind of grammatical structure. Mere practice of that structure without such a perception is not enough. Furthermore, they need a perception of the precise ways in which the Standard English pattern contrasts with the equivalent pattern in their own dialect. In order to perceive these differences the student must see the two patterns as presented to him visually on the blackboard as he listens to the teacher's pronunciation of it.

9. Students have a sense of appropriateness. They know what they expect of people in different situations. They feel that they know how teachers should talk and act. To keep their respect, the teacher needs to talk and act appropriately.

10. Social pressure exerted by the students' peers and by the situational context of communication is very powerful in language learning. When the students in this project knew that they were going to be video-taped, they made a special effort to use Standard English.

11. The number of days a student attends school is far less important than the quality of instruction he receives on those days when he is present.

12. There is a shocking waste of student potential in urban classrooms. The fact that these eleventh graders could improve their mastery of Standard English to such a statistically significant extent in so short a time (i.e., twenty class periods) makes one wonder what they might have accomplished in the previous ten years of schooling.

One of the chief implications of the study is the following: if education is to do anything about the language learning of Nonstandard speakers, the focus should be on teacher behavior, rather than on curriculum or materials.

RECOMMENDATIONS

There is a need for a series of related research studies which together would answer the following questions with regard to a given school population in an urban area:

1. What are the deviations from Standard English peculiar to the population? (The aim of this study would be to make an inventory of the Nonstandard grammatical patterns for which the students in that school population had no consistent English counterpart).

2. Which of those observed deviations are most "serious" in terms of their effect on social situations where Standard English is expected? (Although preliminary studies such as Shuy's have made a general assessment of Nonstandard deviations from this standpoint, what is needed for efficient teaching in any given school is information about the population who will be taught in that locality).

3. How can the learning load involved in mastering these features be divided so that the same features are not being dealt with year after year throughout twelve years of education? (The aim of this study would be to propose an order in which the essential features should be introduced and to decide what the emphasis should be for each time segment in the student's career).

4. What is the best way of evaluating mastery of Standard English? A paper and pencil test can provide one kind of measure of a student's ability to produce a Standard English feature, but it is obviously less satisfactory than seeing how a student uses the language in an actual situation requiring the use of a standard dialect. Manageable ways of measuring performance in social situations need to be developed.

5. How can teachers best be trained to teach Standard English to students who speak some other dialect? (A number of studies may be needed to explore ways of getting teachers to develop the kinds of behavior which lead to students' mastery of Standard English). Psychology, linguistics and anthropology are involved but the issue is: how does a teacher carry these over into the classroom?

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